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aside. For the first time *universal suffrage* is introduced. A few months later, September 22, 1792, the democratic republic is established. The dangers of the nation, which follow immediately afterwards from the invasion of her territories by foreign armies, and from the civil war at home demand a strong rule. The revolutionary government is set up; the Committee of Public Safety, the Revolutionary Tribunal, the Representatives on Missions, etc., are all essentially war measures, and all certain to fall as soon as the situation which called them forth disappears. Hence the reaction against the Terror and the Jacobins is easily successful. A new republic called by Aulard (la République bourgeoise) is set up under the Directory. The royalist reaction and the revival of the Jacobins produces a feverish fear among the middle class. This makes the overthrow of the Directory an easy matter for Napoleon. Under Napoleon the government is gradually but irresistibly transformed into a despotism of the worst kind. Ten years of tyranny marked by carnage and bloodshed followed the advent of the Corsican. The political work of the Revolution was overthrown and France has not yet made good this unfortunate loss.

The work is so well done that criticism is out of place. Still, we cannot but feel sorry that such admirable ability and industry, and such a thorough mastery of the constructive principles of history should confine itself so exclusively to a one-sided study of the Revolution. The writer who finds the *causes* of the origin and development of parties, of the changes in public opinion, and the overthrow of one form of government for another so exclusively in political events is overlooking the deep-seated social and economic reasons basic for that development. Where the attempt is merely to tell *what happened* in the political development, social and economic conditions may be left out of consideration. Immediately however, when the political historian goes a step further and seeks to *account* for the political phenomena, then even he cannot afford to disregard that side of the national life which determines to such a large degree the form and development of political institutions.

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A Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology. Written by many hands and Edited by JAMES MARK BALDWIN, with the co-operation and assistance of an International Board of Consulting Editors. In three volumes, with illustrations and extensive bibliographies. Vol. I. Price, \$5. New York: Macmillan Company, 1901.

Although the primary objects of this dictionary are, as the title indi-

cates, philosophy and psychology, it also includes many of the principal conceptions of the social, economic, biological and physical sciences. It contains a terminology in English, French, German and Italian. It is a "dictionary with encyclopædic features." In the first place it aims "to understand the meanings which our terms have and to render them by clear definitions;" in the second place "to interpret the movements of thought through which the meanings thus determined have arisen, with a view to discovering what is really vital in the development of thought and term in one." A pedagogical end has been held in view throughout. It is not primarily intended for the specialist, but for the student, and hence the form which it has finally taken has been largely determined by the desire to state "formulated and well-defined" results rather than to recount discussions. The biographical notices are brief, but to nearly all articles short bibliographical notes are appended, and volume three is to contain a comprehensive bibliography.

In the present review I wish to call attention chiefly to one aspect of the book. The editor has endeavored to combine two distinctly different ideals as to what such a dictionary should be—to give an impartial survey of the conceptions which have actually been attached to the words given and of the theories grouped about those conceptions, and to sift from this mass of material those conceptions and theories that should be regarded as valid and therefore worthy of authorization.

Many of the faults of the dictionary can be traced to the second of these two ideals. The greater number of the sciences with which it deals are as yet in an imperfect condition, wide differences of opinion exist, and it is impossible that any one man or group of men should decide which of these opinions are to be authorized and which are to be condemned. In so far as the second ideal has been pursued the book tends to become partisan and, in some cases, even polemical. This fault does not affect all the articles in equal degree, but there are few which it does not mar to some extent. If one, however, accepts the dictionary for what it is—a collection of brief articles by scholars of acknowledged standing in their several fields, giving their own views and, with varying degrees of completeness, the views of others on questions which are for the most part *adhuc sub judice*—he will find in it a vast amount of material arranged conveniently for reference, and bibliographical notes which will enable him to pursue any given subject further.

Many of the articles are admirable summaries. Among those meriting special mention are four by Professor Royce on Greek Terminology, Latin and Patristic Terminology, the Terminology of Kant

and that of Hegel (the last two in particular being conspicuous examples of keen analysis and lucid statement), the editor's article on "Belief," President Wheeler's on "Language," and a long article on "Laboratories of Psychology," by Professor Warren and others.

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Inductive Sociology: A Syllabus of Methods, Analyses and Classifications, and Provisionally Formulated Laws. By FRANKLIN HENRY GIDDINGS, Ph. D., LL. D., Professor in Columbia University, New York. Pp. 302. Price, \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1901.

Suggestive and stimulating as Professor Giddings' other works have been, for the scientific student of society this book has a much higher value. Indeed, it may be doubted whether as an illustration of the application of scientific method to the study of social phenomena it has a superior. It is a most successful attempt to show how that method can be applied to the study of the problems of social life. It is perhaps not too much to say that this book, despite certain faults, represents the high-water mark of scientific sociology in America. As such its value should be cordially recognized by every American sociologist.

The book is a radical departure in that it proposes to demonstrate even the most general propositions of sociological theory by the statistical method. The author admits that exact statistics cannot be obtained, but thinks that exactness in statistics is not required for the demonstration of social laws; that all that is necessary to prove in many cases in the quantitative analysis of social facts is the "more or the less."¹ Whether this important modification of statistical method is sound or not, every scientific student of society will commend the proposal to make larger use of statistical material. Professor Giddings deserves the appreciation of his co-workers for this departure from the beaten path of sociological method.

While the work is free from those errors in logic and psychology which characterized his earlier work, "The Principles of Sociology," Professor Giddings has not wholly broken away from his fallacies of the past. He still attempts to interpret all social phenomena in terms of one elementary fact, namely, "like-mindedness," or "the consciousness of kind."² So far as Professor Giddings makes this his leading theory, and attempts to make the whole social process

¹ See pp. 23, 24.

² See Part II, chapters i, ii, iii and iv.